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**GENETIC DIVERSITY IN THE ANDES:
VARIATION WITHIN AND BETWEEN THE
SOUTH AMERICAN SPECIES OF *OREOBOLUS*
R. Br. (CYPERACEAE)**

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19 ABSTRACT

1
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3 20 This study examines genetic relationships among and within the South American
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5 21 species of *Oreobolus* that span the temperate and tropical Andes hotspots and
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7 22 represent a good case study to investigate diversification in the Páramo. A total of
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9 23 197 individuals covering the distributional range of most of these species were
10
11 24 sequenced for the nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and 118
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13 25 individuals for three chloroplast DNA regions (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*).
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15 26 Haplotype networks and measures of genetic diversity were calculated at different
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17 27 taxonomic and geographic levels. To test for possible geographic structure, a Spatial
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19 28 Analysis of Molecular Variance (SAMOVA) was undertaken and species
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21 29 relationships were recovered using a coalescent-based approach. Results indicate
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23 30 complex relationships among the five South American species of *Oreobolus*, which
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25 31 are likely to have been confounded by incomplete lineage sorting, though
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27 32 hybridization cannot be completely discarded as an influence on genetic patterns,
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29 33 particularly among the northern populations of *O. obtusangulus* and *O. cleefii*. We
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31 34 report a case of cryptic speciation in *O. obtusangulus* where northern and southern
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33 35 populations of morphologically similar individuals are genetically distinct in all
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35 36 analyses. At the population level, the genetic evidence is consistent with contraction
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37 37 and expansion of islands of Páramo vegetation during the climatic fluctuations of the
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39 38 Quaternary, highlighting the role of these processes in shaping modern diversity in
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41 39 that ecosystem.
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KEYWORDS

Biogeography, Andes, species tree, lineage sorting, hybridization, Páramo.

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INTRODUCTION

The Páramo is a putatively young ecosystem that appeared following the final uplift of the northern section of the Andes Mountain Range during the Pliocene, c. 5 million years ago – Ma (van der Hammen 1974; van der Hammen and Cleef 1986; Hooghiemstra et al. 2006; Graham 2009). It occupies an area of 37500 km² and is distributed in a series of sky islands with c. 4000 plant species of which 60% are endemic (Luteyn 1999; Buytaert et al. 2010). It has been proposed that the glacial-interglacial cycles of the Quaternary may have played an important role in shaping Páramo plant populations (van der Hammen 1974; Simpson 1975). The continuous contraction and expansion of altitudinal vegetation belts may have promoted the

59 contact of Páramo islands during glacial periods, enabling the migration and
60 exchange of otherwise isolated taxa (van der Hammen and Cleef 1986). Conversely,
61 during interglacial periods, Páramo islands may have been isolated, promoting
62 speciation (van der Hammen and Cleef 1986). Furthermore, previous studies have
63 demonstrated that Páramo lineages have significantly higher speciation rates than
64 any other biodiversity hotspot on Earth and that many speciation events occurred
65 during the Pleistocene (Madriñán et al. 2013). Recent divergence times among
66 Páramo plant lineages might have implications, both at the phenotypic and genotypic
67 level, because morphological diversity and differentiation may not reflect complete
68 genetic divergence between and within closely related taxa (Schaal et al. 1998).

69 The five South American species of the schoenoid sedge *Oreobolus* R. Br. (*O. cleefii*
70 L.E. Mora, *O. ecuadorensis* T. Koyama, *O. goeppingeri* Suess., *O. obtusangulus*
71 Gaudich. and *O. venezuelensis* Steyerm.) are an ideal model system to investigate
72 how recent climatic and/or geological events may have shaped extant populations in
73 the Páramo. Previous studies have supported the monophyly of the South American
74 clade of *Oreobolus* and dated its divergence to c. 5 Ma, coinciding with the
75 appearance of the Páramo ecosystem (Chacón et al. 2006). The South American
76 clade of *Oreobolus* is therefore a good exemplar to study Páramo biogeography,
77 including investigating the likely effects of recent climatic events (i.e. glacial cycles
78 of the Quaternary) on the population structure of its species.

79 A handful of genetic studies for similar high-altitude tropical ecosystems in Africa
80 have been published in recent years (Kebede et al. 2007; Assefa et al. 2007; Gizaw et
81 al. 2013; Kadu et al. 2013; Wondimu et al. 2013). However, such studies are almost
82 non-existent for the Páramo flora (Vásquez et al. 2016; Kolář et al. 2016). The aims

of this study are to estimate the species phylogeny of the South American species of *Oreobolus* and their timing of diversification, to assess genetic structure at the inter- and intra-specific level and to interpret these in the light of Quaternary glacial-interglacial cycles.

METHODS

Study species and sampling

The species concepts for *Oreobolus* that we use here follow the monograph of Seberg (1988) for *O. ecuadorensis*, *O. goeppingeri*, *O. obtusangulus* and *O. venezuelensis*, and of Mora-Osejo (1987) for *O. cleefii*. These species, with the exception of *O. obtusangulus* subsp. *obtusangulus*, are restricted to wet, temperate-like environments in the northern section of the Tropical Andes and in the Talamanca Cordillera in southern Central America, and are found only in the high-altitude Páramo ecosystem (Seberg 1988; Chacón et al. 2006). *Oreobolus cleefii* is restricted to the Eastern Cordillera and the southern Andean region of Colombia. *Oreobolus ecuadorensis* is found in southern Colombia, Ecuador and northern Peru. *Oreobolus goeppingeri* is distributed in the Talamanca Cordillera in southern Central America, Colombia and Ecuador. *Oreobolus obtusangulus* has two subspecies with a disjunct distribution: subsp. *unispicus* is distributed in Colombia, Ecuador and northern Peru while subsp. *obtusangulus* occupies the subantarctic region of Chile, Argentina and the Falkland Islands. Finally, *O. venezuelensis* occupies all Páramo regions (Talamanca Cordillera, Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador and northern Peru).

104 The distributions of all *Oreobolus* Páramo species overlap with those of at least one
 105 other congeneric species (Fig. 1). All Páramo species are found between 3000 and
 106 4300 m a.s.l. while in the subantarctic regions, the altitude at which *O. obtusangulus*
 107 is found decreases with increasing latitude, from 2400 m a.s.l. to sea level (Seberg
 108 1988). The five South American species are clearly differentiated in terms of
 109 morphology and, in common with most Cyperaceae, *Oreobolus* is both wind
 110 pollinated and dispersed (Seberg 1988). Little is known about ploidy levels and
 111 chromosome numbers in *Oreobolus*, with the only chromosome count for *O.*
 112 *obtusangulus* ssp. *obtusangulus* ($2n = 48$; Moore (1967)).

113 The five South American species of *Oreobolus* (*O. cleefii*, *O. ecuadorensis*, *O.*
 114 *goeppingeri*, *O. obtusangulus* and *O. venezuelensis*) were sampled extensively across
 115 their entire distribution range (Fig. 1). A total of 269 samples from 32 sampling
 116 localities were obtained from both field collections (10 sampling localities) and
 117 herbarium material (22 sampling localities) (Fig. 1 and Supp. Table 1). From each of
 118 the ten field sampling localities, all within Colombia, two to ten fresh leaf samples
 119 per species were collected, and their location was recorded using a handheld GPS
 120 (Fig. 1, sampling localities 2 – 11). For sampling localities in Costa Rica, Ecuador,
 121 Peru, Chile and Argentina (Fig. 1, sampling localities 1 and 12 – 32), herbarium
 122 material was acquired from the Utrecht (U) and Leiden University (L) branches of
 123 the National Herbarium of the Netherlands, Aarhus University Herbarium (AAU)
 124 and the University of Reading Herbarium (RNG). For herbarium specimens, between
 125 one and ten individuals per species were sampled from each sampling locality.
 126 Coordinates were recorded from the herbarium specimens and checked for accuracy
 127 using the NGA GEOnet Names Server (GNS) (<http://geonames.nga.mil>). Sampling

localities are numbered 1 to 32 in a north to south direction. Sampling localities 1 to 23 will be referred to as northern Andes – NA (Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru) and 24 to 32 as southern Andes – SA (Chile and Argentina). Previously published sequence data for *O. cleefii*, *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis* (Chacón et al. 2006) were also incorporated and assigned to their corresponding sampling locality. Supplementary Table 2 presents the complete list of samples used in this study together with their GenBank numbers.

DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

Both silica-dried fresh leaf samples and herbarium material were pulverised using a Mixer Mill (Retsch, Haan, Germany). Total genomic DNA from herbarium material was isolated following the CTAB method of Doyle and Doyle (1990) and from silica-dried samples with the DNeasy® Plant Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Manchester, UK) following the manufacturer's protocol. The chloroplast region *trnL*-F was amplified and sequenced using primers *trnLc* and *trnLf* for silica-dried material, and in combination with internal primers *trnLd* and *trnLe* for herbarium material (Taberlet et al. 1991). For silica-dried material, the ITS region was amplified and sequenced with external primers ITS5P and ITS8P (Möller and Cronk 1997). For herbarium material, owing to the increased likelihood of the DNA being degraded, amplification and sequencing were performed using external primers ITS5P and ITS8P in combination with internal primers ITS2P and ITS3P (Möller and Cronk 1997), in order to amplify the shorter ITS1 and ITS2 regions in separate reactions. The chloroplast regions *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL* were amplified and sequenced using primer pairs *trnH*^{GUG} (Tate and Simpson 2003)/*psbA* (Sang et al. 1997) and

151 *trnL*^(UAG)/*rpl32*-F (Shaw et al. 2007), respectively. For all reactions, 20 µl PCR
152 reactions used the following proportions: 1 µl of unquantified DNA, 1x Buffer
153 (Bioline, London, UK), 1mM dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl₂ (Bioline, London, UK), 0.75
154 µM of each forward and reverse primer, 4µl of combinatorial enhancer solution
155 (CES) and 0.05 U of *Taq* polymerase (Bioline, London, UK). The amplification
156 cycle for all chloroplast regions (*trnL*-F, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) consisted of 2
157 min at 94 °C, followed by 30 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C, 1 min at 52 °C and 1 min at 72
158 °C, finalising with 7 min at 72 °C. For ITS, the amplification cycle consisted of 3 min
159 at 94 °C, followed by 30 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C, 1 min at 55 °C and 90 sec at 72 °C,
160 finalising with 5 min at 72 °C. PCR products were purified with 2 µl of ExoSAP-IT®
161 (USB Corporation, High Wycombe, UK) for 5 µl of product. Sequencing reactions
162 for each primer used the BigDye® Terminator v3.1 chemistry (Applied
163 Biosystems™, Paisley, UK) and the manufacturer's protocol. Sequencing was
164 performed at the Edinburgh Genomics facility of the University of Edinburgh. No
165 double peaks were observed in the chromatograms of the ITS region and therefore it
166 was not necessary to clone.

167 Matrix assembly and sequence alignment

168 Contigs of forward and reverse sequences were assembled in Sequencher version 5.2
169 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA). 230 ITS sequences, 169
170 *trnL*-F sequences, 128 *trnH-psbA* sequences and 190 *rpl32-trnL* sequences were
171 generated for this study (Supp. Table 2). The sequences were manually aligned using
172 Mesquite v2.75 (Maddison and Maddison 2014). Supplementary Table 3 describes

173 number of individuals successfully sequenced per species per cluster/sampling
174 locality.

175 Species phylogeny and timing of diversification

176 The multispecies coalescent model implemented in *BEAST 2 (Heled and
177 Drummond 2012; Bouckaert et al. 2014) was used to estimate the phylogenetic
178 relationships amongst the five South American species of *Oreobolus* as well as their
179 divergence time. Only complete sequences were used for the species tree estimation
180 (ITS, *trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*; Supp. Table 2). The analysis was run using
181 bModelTest (Bouckaert and Drummond 2017) which is a model selection tool
182 incorporated in BEAST 2 (Bouckaert et al. 2014) that uses a Bayesian framework
183 (reversible jump MCMC) to select the most appropriate substitution model while
184 simultaneously estimating the phylogeny. Phylogenetic reconstruction and
185 divergence time estimations were performed using BEAST v2.4.5 (Bouckaert et al.
186 2014). The tree model was linked for the three plastid regions because cpDNA does
187 not undergo recombination. The model of lineage-specific substitution rate variation
188 was set as a strict clock model for each dataset. A *BEAST analysis requires each
189 taxon to be associated with a species or taxonomic unit (Taxon Sets). These were
190 defined following current taxonomy but with *O. obtusangulus* divided into northern
191 and southern taxa (based upon results presented below). The diversification model
192 for the species tree was set to a calibrated Yule model (Heled and Drummond 2012)
193 with the population size model at its default setting. The root of the species tree was
194 clock calibrated using a prior with a normal distribution defined by a mean (μ) of
195 4.76 Ma and a standard deviation (σ) of 1.2 Ma. The age and error range correspond

196 to those estimated for the crown node of the South American *Oreobolus* clade from a
197 dated phylogeny of the Schoeneae tribe using one fossil and one secondary
198 calibration (Gómez-Gutiérrez, 2016). A normal distribution was used on the root
199 because it is the most suitable for secondary calibrations (Ho and Phillips 2009). This
200 type of distribution allocates most of the probability density around the mean and
201 allows for symmetrical decrease towards the tails accounting for age error (Ho and
202 Phillips 2009). All other priors were left at their default settings.

203 Four independent MCMC runs of 250 million generations each were performed,
204 sampling every 25000 generations. Runs were combined and 75% of the samples
205 were discarded as burn-in. Adequate mixing and convergence were assessed using
206 Tracer v1.6.0 (Rambaut et al. 2013). A maximum clade credibility tree (MCC) from
207 the combined tree sets was annotated with common ancestor heights, 95% HPD node
208 ages and posterior probability values (PP) on TreeAnnotator v2.1.2 (Rambaut and
209 Drummond 2015).

210 Haplotype definition and networks

211 Haplotypes were identified independently for the nuclear ribosomal region (ITS) and
212 the concatenated plastid regions (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) in Microsoft
213 Excel (Microsoft Corporation, Washington DC, USA) using the Chloroplast PCR-
214 RFLP Excel macro (French 2003). For ITS, only samples successfully sequenced for
215 the whole region were included (Supp. Table 2). Likewise, for the concatenated
216 plastid regions, only samples successfully sequenced for all three regions were
217 considered (Supp. Table 2). Informative insertion/deletion events (indels) were
218 included in the analysis and coded as absent (0) or present (1) following the simple

indel coding method of Simmons and Ochotenera (2000). Poly-T and poly-A length polymorphisms, di-nucleotide repeats and ambiguously aligned regions were excluded from subsequent analyses for all regions. Haplotype connection lengths were calculated using Arlequin ver3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010) and a minimum-spanning tree was produced in Hapstar v0.5 (Teacher and Griffiths 2011). NeighborNet networks – NN (Bryant and Moulton 2004) were also constructed for both nuclear and concatenated plastid haplotypes using Splitstree 4 (Huson and Bryant 2006). This method allows representation of conflicting signals in the data, which might be due to incomplete lineage sorting or reticulate evolution (Bryant and Moulton 2004; Huson and Bryant 2006). In the resulting network, conflicts are represented by parallel edges connecting taxa. The NN networks used uncorrected-p distances, which calculate the number of changes between each pair of haplotypes.

Genetic diversity and structure

Sampling localities were combined into clusters to increase the likelihood of detecting phylogeographic signal (Fig. 1, Supp. Table 1). Clusters were defined regardless of species classification, an approach justified by Gómez-Gutiérrez (2016; see also results below) who showed poor phylogenetic resolution amongst the South American species of *Oreobolus*. Fourteen clusters (A – N) were defined according to geographic distance and ensuring the absence of any significant geographic barrier between sampling localities within each cluster such as deep inter-Andean valleys. Haplotype (h) and nucleotide (π) diversities were calculated independently for each cluster and each species in Arlequin ver3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010).

241 Additionally, haplotype richness (hr) was estimated for each species using
242 HIERFSTAT (Goudet 2005) in R version 3.2.3 (R Core Team 2015). This package uses
243 a rarefaction procedure set to 100 runs to correct for bias due to unequal sample
244 sizes. ITS sample size was standardised to 15 individuals while cpDNA sample size
245 was standardised to nine. Additionally, F_{ST} values between cluster pairs and species
246 pairs were calculated independently for ITS and the concatenated plastid regions
247 using Arlequin ver3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). NN networks for both nuclear
248 and concatenated plastid regions were constructed from the calculated F_{ST} values.
249 For the cluster pairs, clusters A, K and N were excluded from the analysis due to
250 their low sample sizes ($N \leq 2$). In the case of the species pairs, calculations were first
251 undertaken considering *O. obtusangulus* as one species and then with the northern
252 and southern populations considered as two different species.

253 To analyse the geographical structure of genetic variation, a spatial analysis of
254 molecular variance (SAMOVA) was performed independently for the nuclear and
255 concatenated plastid datasets (Dupanloup et al. 2002). SAMOVA identifies groups of
256 populations/clusters that are geographically homogeneous as well as maximising
257 genetic differentiation amongst them (Dupanloup et al. 2002). One hundred
258 annealing simulations were undertaken for each possible number of groups (ITS, $K =$
259 $2 - 13$; cpDNA, $K = 2 - 12$). The minimum number of groups (K) was chosen that
260 maximised the genetic differentiation amongst them (F_{CT}). Subsequently, haplotype
261 (h) and nucleotide (π) diversities were calculated for the resulting SAMOVA groups
262 in Arlequin ver3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). Likewise, haplotype richness (hr)
263 was estimated for each group using HIERFSTAT (Goudet 2005) in R version 3.2.3 (R
264 Core Team 2015). Similarly, to test if the phylogeographic structure had a

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265 phylogenetic component, two measures of genetic differentiation amongst clusters
266 were estimated using PERMUTCPSSR 2.0 (Pons and Petit 1996; Burban et al. 1999).
267 A distance matrix was calculated based on the number of mutational steps between
268 haplotypes (N_{ST}) and on haplotype frequencies (G_{ST}). Ten thousand permutations
269 were performed to assess if N_{ST} was significantly higher than G_{ST} .
270 Additionally, variation in genetic structure was further examined for 1) all species, 2)
271 all clusters, 3) northern Andes clusters only, 4) clusters grouped by region (northern
272 Andes, southern Andes) and 5) SAMOVA groups using an analysis of molecular
273 variance (AMOVA) in Arlequin ver3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010).

274 RESULTS

275 Species phylogeny and timing of diversification

276 The MCC tree for the combined tree sets (Fig. 2) shows *O. cleefii*, *O. ecuadorensis*,
277 *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis* are recovered as monophyletic. The results
278 support the genetic differentiation between *O. obtusangulus* from the northern Andes
279 region (NA; Fig. 2) and *O. obtusangulus* from the southern Andes region (SA; Fig.
280 2). *Oreobolus obtusangulus* (SA) is sister to all remaining species. In the northern
281 Andean clade (NAC; PP=100%), *O. ecuadorensis*, *O. cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus*
282 (NA) form a clade (PP=75%) sister to another clade composed of *O. goeppingeri* and
283 *O. venezuelensis* (PP=71%). *Oreobolus cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* (NA) are
284 recovered as sister species (PP=87%). South American *Oreobolus* diverged c. 4.39
285 Ma (95% HPD [1.96 – 6.97] Ma) during the Pliocene (Fig. 2). Subsequently, the

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286 NAC diversified into five species c. 0.44 Ma (95% HPD 0.11 – 0.81] Ma) during the
287 Pleistocene (Fig. 2).

288 Haplotype definition and networks

289 *Nuclear ribosomal DNA*

290 A total of 197 individuals from 14 clusters (A – N) were scored for ITS haplotypes,
291 including individuals for all five species across their entire distribution range (Supp.
292 Table 3). After exclusion of poly-T and poly-A length polymorphisms, di-nucleotide
293 repeats and ambiguously aligned regions, 523 bp of aligned sequences remained.
294 Thirty-nine polymorphic sites comprising 38 nucleotide substitutions and one indel
295 defined thirty haplotypes. Of these, 22 (73.3%) were species-specific while eight
296 (26.7%) were shared among species (Fig. 3, Supp. Table 4 and Supp. Fig. 1). There
297 was no clear clustering according to current taxonomy evident in either the
298 NeighborNet network (NN) (Fig. 3) or the minimum-spanning tree (MST) (Supp.
299 Fig. 1), for example *O. obtusangulus* is not resolved in one group.

300 At a continental scale, haplotypes were geographically restricted with no shared
301 haplotypes between the NA region and the SA (Fig. 3, Supp. Table 4 and Supp. Fig.
302 1). This geographic structure was evident in both the minimum-spanning tree (Supp.
303 Fig. 1) and the NN network (Fig. 3). Within the NA sampling localities, patterns
304 were more complicated. There are eight shared haplotypes evident in the MST
305 (Supp. Fig. 1) and many edges in the NN Network (Fig. 3). Of the eight shared
306 haplotypes, seven occur in *O. obtusangulus*. Furthermore Hn9, a haplotype shared
307 between *O. goeppingeri* and *O. obtusangulus*, is located in the middle of the MST
308 connecting the SA and NA haplotypes (Supp. Fig. 1). When not considering shared

haplotypes, Hn12 and Hn14 found in *O. goeppingeri* are closer to those found in other species than they are to other haplotypes of the same species as are Hn28 and Hn30 in *O. venezuelensis*.

Plastid DNA

A total of 118 individuals from 13 clusters (B – N) were successfully sequenced for all three plastid markers (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*), including individuals from all five species across most of their distribution range (Supp. Table 3). A concatenated matrix of 2465 bp of aligned sequences (*trnL-F*, 1040 bp; *trnH-psbA*, 676 bp; *rpl32-trnL*, 749 bp) resulted after the exclusion of poly-T and poly-A length polymorphisms, di-nucleotide repeats and ambiguously aligned regions. Forty haplotypes were identified based on 141 polymorphic sites (*trnL-F*, 53; *trnH-psbA*, 14; *rpl32-trnL*, 74) including 112 nucleotide substitutions and 28 indels. Thirty-four haplotypes (85%) were species-specific while six (15%) were shared among species (Fig. 4, Supp. Table 5 and Supp. Fig. 2). When only considering species-specific haplotypes, both the MST and NN network showed some degree of clustering according to taxonomy for three of the species, namely *O. ecuadorensis*, *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis* (Fig. 4 and Supp. Fig. 2).

As for ITS, there were no shared haplotypes between the NA and the SA regions (Fig. 4, Supp. Table 5 and Supp. Fig. 2). This geographic structure was evident in both the MST and the NN network (Fig. 4 and Supp. Fig. 2). There was low support for groupings in the cpDNA network in the relationships amongst NA groups compounded by the large number of possible unsampled haplotypes. The results of

the cpDNA analysis were similar to those of ITS in showing a large number of edges and of shared haplotypes.

Genetic diversity and structure

Species genetic structure

Molecular diversity indices for ITS and cpDNA for the five *Oreobolus* species, including the two *O. obtusangulus* groups (NA and SA), are shown in Table 1. Haplotype and nucleotide diversity was lowest in *O. ecuadorensis* and highest in *O. obtusangulus* (Table 1). Similarly, haplotypic richness was lowest in *O. ecuadorensis* and highest in *O. obtusangulus*. However, the high values in *O. obtusangulus* were reduced when considering SA and NA populations of *O. obtusangulus* as separate species (see Table 1).

Pairwise F_{ST} values between all species pairs were significant for ITS and cpDNA (ITS: $p < 0.001$; cpDNA: $p < 0.05$), with the exception of *O. cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* (NA) for cpDNA ($F_{ST} = -0.020$) (Table 2, Supp. Figs 3 – 4). *Oreobolus ecuadorensis* is consistently differentiated from the other species in both ITS and cpDNA (Table 2, Supp. Figs 3 – 4). The NN, based on F_{ST} values showed that when considering *O. obtusangulus* as one species, it is reconstructed in the middle of the network and its placement is poorly resolved in both ITS and cpDNA NN networks (Supp. Figs 3a – 4a). In contrast, when considering northern and southern groups separately, *O. obtusangulus* (SA) is clearly different from other *Oreobolus* species, whereas *O. obtusangulus* (NA) has affinities with *O. cleefii*. The conflicting signal between the latter two species (i.e., multiple parallel edges) is evident in both cpDNA and ITS NN networks (Supp. Figs 3b – 4b). *Oreobolus*

354 *goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis* are well differentiated in cpDNA but not in ITS
355 where they appeared in the centre of the networks with multiple connections to the
356 other species (Supp. Figs 3 – 4).

357 *Cluster genetic structure*

358 The results of the AMOVA showed that although differentiation amongst species
359 was significant (ITS, $F_{ST} = 0.30$, $p < 0.001$; cpDNA, $F_{ST} = 0.48$, $p < 0.001$), within
360 species variation accounted for 70% for ITS and 52% for cpDNA (Table 3).

361 Similarly, separation into geographic clusters only explained 43% (ITS) and 37%
362 (cpDNA) of the variation.

363 The SAMOVA for both ITS and cpDNA indicated three groups (I – III; Supp. Table
364 8, Supp. Figs 1 – 2) as the number of genetic clusters (K) that maximised genetic
365 differentiation amongst groups while minimising the number of single-cluster groups
366 (ITS, $F_{CT} = 0.622$, $p < 0.001$; cpDNA, $F_{CT} = 0.426$, $p < 0.001$). For ITS, group I
367 included all NA clusters (A – J) while groups II (K, L, N) and III (M) included the
368 SA ones (Supp. Table 8, Supp. Fig. 1). For cpDNA, group I included all NA clusters
369 plus the northernmost SA cluster (K), while groups II (L, N) and III (M) included the
370 rest (Supp. Table 8, Supp. Fig. 2). SAMOVA groups explained slightly more of the
371 genetic structure (ITS, $F_{CT} = 0.62$, $p < 0.001$; cpDNA, $F_{CT} = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$) than the
372 NA versus SA continental divide (ITS, $F_{CT} = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$; cpDNA, $F_{CT} = 0.36$, p
373 < 0.001) (Table 3). Molecular diversity indices calculated for the SAMOVA groups
374 are presented in Table 4. Significant phylogeographic structure was indicated by the
375 significantly higher values of N_{ST} (ITS, $N_{ST} = 0.605$; cpDNA, $N_{ST} = 0.406$)
376 compared to G_{ST} (ITS, $G_{ST} = 0.262$; cpDNA, $G_{ST} = 0.156$; $p < 0.01$).

DISCUSSION

Timing of diversification

The dated species tree presented here (Fig. 2) indicates younger diversification dates than those presented by Chacón et al. (2006), which is expected because divergence dates estimated from a species tree will generally be younger than those estimated from a gene tree (Drummond and Bouckaert 2015). Our species phylogeny indicates that the most recent common ancestor of the South American *Oreobolus* diverged 4.39 Ma (95% HPD [1.96 – 6.97] Ma) during the late Miocene – early Pliocene. Subsequently, the northern Andean clade (NAC) appears to have diversified from 0.44 Ma (95% HPD [0.11 – 0.81] Ma). This indicates that the expansion and contraction of Páramo islands during the glacial cycles of the Quaternary may have played a role in diversification in the northern Andes (see last section of the discussion) (van der Hammen 1974; Simpson 1975; van der Hammen and Cleef 1986; Hooghiemstra and van der Hammen 2004).

Genetic diversity and structure

Our results reveal a complex evolutionary history for the five South American species of *Oreobolus*. Species relationships were difficult to estimate, indicating either interspecific gene flow and/or incomplete lineage sorting (Naciri and Linder 2015). Haplotype and nucleotide diversity were high for both ITS and cpDNA for all species except *O. ecuadorensis* (Table 1). Additionally, shared haplotypes were observed in both ITS (27%) and cpDNA (15%). This intricate history is also evident

398 in the MST and NN networks for both ITS and cpDNA (Figs. 3 – 4 and Supp. Figs. 1
399 – 2).

400 The high degree of complexity observed amongst these species contrasts with the
401 morphological characters that distinguish them. Inconsistencies between
402 morphological characteristics and genetic patterns can arise due to high levels of
403 plasticity of morphological characters or parallel adaptations to local conditions
404 resulting in the same morphology, which might be the case for *O. obtusangulus*. The
405 data presented here indicate that the two subspecies of *O. obtusangulus* represent
406 morphologically cryptic species. Britton et al. (2014) have described another
407 example of cryptic speciation within the Schoeneae in the South African species
408 *Tetraria triangularis*. These authors found at least three intraspecific lineages that
409 qualified as cryptic species based on their genetic distinctiveness and subtle
410 morphological differentiation. Furthermore, cryptic lineages have also been found in
411 otherwise morphologically indistinguishable taxa within the Páramo genus *Loricaria*
412 (Asteraceae) (Kolář et al. 2016).

413 Nonetheless, convergent morphological evolution does not appear to satisfactorily
414 account for the genetic patterns observed in many South American species of
415 *Oreobolus*, which may result from incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) and/or
416 hybridization. Given the recent Pliocene diversification of both the northern and
417 southern Andean clades of *Oreobolus* (Fig. 2), lineage sorting may not have been
418 fully completed. Previous studies have indicated ILS in recently diverged groups,
419 particularly when effective population sizes are large (Maddison and Knowles 2006;
420 Jakob and Blattner 2006; Degnan and Rosenberg 2009; Cutter 2013). Furthermore,
421 under a scenario of ILS, it is expected that different genes would have different

coalescence times. Haploid plastid genes have a lower effective population size than nuclear genes and thus would coalesce faster (Schaal and Olsen 2000; Naciri and Linder 2015). Faster coalescence would be translated into an increased correspondence between the genetic relationships recovered with plastid genes and currently recognised taxonomic species. Our results support this scenario because cpDNA better differentiates taxonomic species than ITS for *O. ecuadorensis*, *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis* (Figs. 3 – 4 and Supp. Figs. 1 – 2).

However, species relationships may be obscured by ongoing gene flow as patterns of ILS are difficult to disentangle from those of historic hybridization. Two species pairs, *Oreobolus cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* (NA), and *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis*, show patterns indicative of ILS and/or hybridization. Firstly, *Oreobolus cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* (NA) show contrasting patterns between nuclear (ITS) and cpDNA haplotypes (Figs. 3 – 4 and Supp. Figs. 1 – 2) possibly due to chloroplast capture and simultaneous nuclear introgression (Abbott et al. 2013). These closely related species naturally occur in sympatry in all of the sampled localities (Fig. 1) and show an overlap in morphological characters (Seberg 1988). In fact, morphological similarities previously lead Seberg (1988) to suggest that *O. cleefii* should be reduced to synonymy under *O. obtusangulus* subsp. *unispicus*, the northern Andean subspecies of *O. obtusangulus*. Secondly, the two most widespread species in the Páramo, *O. goeppingeri* and *O. venezuelensis*, also naturally occur in sympatry in all sampled localities (Fig. 1). These species also show complicated genetic patterns, combining high levels of diversity with shared haplotypes (Figs. 3 and 4) and conflicting phylogenetic relationships (Supp. Figs. 3 – 4 with other northern Andean species). A possible explanation is that the widespread nature of

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446 these species provided greater opportunities for intra, and interspecific mixing
447 compared with more range-restricted species, which exhibit a similar pattern of
448 haplotype sharing, albeit on a smaller scale (Supp. Figs. 1 – 2).

449 Current gene flow would be expected to result in F1 hybrids that would exhibit
450 heterozygosity in ITS, but this was not observed in any *Oreobolus* species, although
451 such heterozygosity may no longer be evident in older hybrids. While the presence of
452 later generations of hybrids or backcrosses cannot be excluded, the lack of
453 heterozygosity in ITS and the presence of shared haplotypes recovered in multiple
454 pairs of individuals from all species is more suggestive of a stochastic process likely
455 related to lineage sorting. Therefore, although gene flow cannot be ruled out and may
456 have a role in some situations (e.g. *Oreobolus cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* see
457 below), we suggest incomplete lineage sorting in a recently diversified group is also
458 part of the explanation for the complex patterns observed in the South American
459 species of *Oreobolus*. A recent phylogeographic study of the Australian alpine *Poa*
460 (Poaceae) describes a similar pattern of problematic recovery of species relationships
461 associated with a putatively young ecosystem and a Pleistocene radiation following
462 long-distance dispersal to Australia (Griffin and Hoffmann 2014). This study also
463 favoured ILS rather than ongoing gene flow as the likely process behind the
464 observed pattern based on the widespread genetic similarity and recent divergence
465 times.

466 The results of the AMOVAs revealed that neither clustering into currently defined
467 taxonomic species (Mora-Osejo 1987; Seberg 1988) nor into our pre-defined
468 geographic clusters (Fig. 1, Supp. Table 1) described the distribution of genetic
469 diversity, only explaining 30% (ITS)/48% (cpDNA) and 43% (ITS)/37% (cpDNA),

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470 respectively (Table 3). Rather, the SAMOVA suggested that an *a posteriori*
471 geographic arrangement better explained genetic diversity (62% for ITS and 43% for
472 cpDNA, Table 3). Thus, the observed patterns of genetic diversity are likely to be the
473 result of complex interactions between some species over various geographic
474 distances.

475 At a continental scale there is evidence of geographic structure in *Oreobolus* species,
476 (Figs. 1 – 2, Supp. Figs. 1 – 2), suggested by a higher value of N_{ST} compared to G_{ST}
477 ($p < 0.01$), indicating that haplotypes in the same cluster are on average more closely
478 related than distinct haplotypes from different clusters. The clearest geographic break
479 apparent in *Oreobolus* is between the northern Andes (NA) and southern Andes
480 (SA). This pattern is evident in both chloroplast and nuclear regions, although the
481 pattern is much stronger in ITS (Figs. 1 – 2, Supp. Figs. 1 – 2). The arid central
482 Andes are likely to impose a barrier to dispersal and gene flow, but the position of
483 the north-south break is unclear. SAMOVA groups clearly identify the NA/SA
484 disjunction in ITS but not in the plastid region where cluster K is grouped with the
485 northern Andean clusters (Supp. Table 8, Supp. Figs. 1 – 2). The latter is also evident
486 in the cpDNA NN where the distance between haplotypes is shorter than in the NN
487 for ITS (Figs. 1 – 2). The incongruence between ITS and plastid regions may suggest
488 mixing between the SAC and NAC in cluster K, resulting from long distance
489 dispersal events. Cluster K is separated from both NA clusters and other SA clusters
490 by a substantial distance and possesses unique haplotypes at both ITS and plastid
491 regions (Supp. Tables 4 – 5).

492 Additional structure is evident at regional scales within the NAC and appears to be
493 associated with putative geographic barriers to gene flow. Pairwise F_{ST} values

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494 calculated for ITS showed that clusters B and J were significantly differentiated from
495 all other sites, regardless of the geographic distances (Fig. 5, Supp. Table 7). These
496 two clusters are separated from all other NA clusters by inter-Andean valleys of
497 seasonally dry tropical forest. Cluster B is isolated from the rest by the dry
498 Chicamocha Canyon while cluster J is separated from the other NA clusters by the
499 Marañón Valley (Fig. 1). Särkinen et al. (2012) suggested that biome heterogeneity
500 across the Andes represented a strong barrier to dispersal within island-like
501 ecosystems. This is particularly relevant when deep valleys segment the mountain
502 ranges, as is the case here. In addition, for *O. venezuelensis*, clusters H and I have
503 ITS haplotypes distinct from others in the species, namely Hn28 and Hn30 (Fig. 1,
504 Supp. Fig. 1). These haplotypes are distributed in the southernmost part of these
505 species' distribution range and their differentiation from species-specific haplotypes
506 distributed in the northernmost areas (Hn26, Hn27 and Hn28) further supports the
507 observed phylogeographic structure and possible pattern of isolation by distance.

508 Genetic patterns in the light of Quaternary glacial-interglacial cycles.

509 Our dated tree (Fig. 2) is consistent with Quaternary diversification in the NAC, and
510 high levels of molecular diversity for both nuclear and plastid regions, as well as the
511 high number of unsampled cpDNA haplotypes in our dataset, are concordant with a
512 scenario of expansion and contraction of Páramo islands during the glacial cycles of
513 the Quaternary (Table 4, Supp. Table 8 and Supp. Fig. 2). SAMOVA analysis failed
514 to identify any clear groupings within the NAC (Supp. Table 8, Supp. Figs. 1 – 2)
515 and variation amongst NA clusters was moderate and mostly explained by within
516 cluster variation (ITS, 86%; cpDNA, 79%; Table 3). Vicariance events would allow

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517 for differentiation of populations and diversification, through selection and drift. If
518 reproductive isolation is incomplete, subsequent expansion events may have allowed
519 gene flow amongst nearby populations and potentially even amongst species.
520 Repeated vicariance and contact, which would be expected from Quaternary glacial
521 cycles, would generate complex genetic patterns, with species sharing haplotypes.
522 Such patterns are evident in *Oreobolus*, with a few widespread haplotypes amongst
523 species apparently giving rise to geographically restricted haplotypes (Supp. Figs. 1
524 – 2). Similar patterns have been reported for the afro-alpine populations of *Arabis*
525 *alpina* where several cycles of range contraction and expansion caused by the glacial
526 cycles of the Quaternary may have shaped intra-specific distribution of genetic
527 diversity (Assefa et al. 2007). In the same way, cluster M in the SA region is a
528 divergent genetic group for both ITS and cpDNA in SAMOVA analyses (Supp. Figs.
529 1 – 2). Molecular diversity indices for this cluster showed low haplotype diversity
530 and high nucleotide diversity in ITS, and high haplotype diversity and low nucleotide
531 diversity in cpDNA (Supp. Table 8). A possible explanation for this pattern might be
532 that these populations underwent a bottleneck during isolation resulting in a low
533 number of divergent haplotypes. During the glacial cycles of the Quaternary ice
534 sheets covered extensive areas and generated massive fragmentation and restriction
535 in the distribution of southern Andean plants producing pockets of refugial
536 populations (e.g. Markgraf et al. 1995). Although a scenario of Pleistocene refugia
537 has already been proposed for other southern Andean plants (e.g. Tremetsberger et
538 al. 2009) further work would be required to assess the potential for refugial
539 populations in *O. obtusangulus* (SA).

1 540 Glacial cycles may have also had an impact at the inter-specific level. *Oreobolus*
2 541 *ecuadorensis* has the lowest molecular diversity indices for both ITS and cpDNA
3 542 (Table 1) and is one of the most geographically restricted species, found only in
4 543 Ecuador and northern Peru (Fig. 1). Such patterns may arise through a severe
5 544 bottleneck followed by a population expansion likely imposed by the glacial cycles
6 545 of the Quaternary (Templeton 1998; Hewitt 2004). Ecuador and Peru have the
7 546 highest percentage of permanent snow and therefore interglacial periods may have
8 547 greatly reduced the size of the populations of *O. ecuadorensis*, reducing its genetic
9 548 diversity. Following the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), population expansion may
10 549 have occurred with new mutations likely to accumulate as the species occupied new
11 550 areas. New haplotypes were thereby produced, diverging from the founder
12 551 population by only a few nucleotides. At the same time, the strong impact of
13 552 interglacial periods is evident in the clear differentiation of *O. ecuadorensis* from all
14 553 other species (Table 2, Supp. Figs. 3 – 4).
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16 554 There was no clear evidence of ongoing hybridization but historic hybridization
17 555 between sympatric sister species *O. cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus* (NA) may have been
18 556 facilitated by periods of isolation and divergence during the glacial cycles of the
19 557 Quaternary. Secondary contact zones can form from long-distance dispersal events,
20 558 leading to interspecific hybridization, such as that proposed by Gizaw et al. (2016)
21 559 for two co-occurring sister species of *Carex* from a similar tropical alpine ecosystem
22 560 in East Africa. We suggest a similar scenario for *O. cleefii* and *O. obtusangulus*
23 561 (NA), with renewed contact occurring following isolation during interglacial periods
24 562 in the Quaternary (van der Hammen 1974).
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563 CONCLUSION

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3 564 This is one of a few studies to investigate genetic relationships both within and
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5 565 between species in a recently diverged Páramo genus and hence it provides a
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7 566 significant contribution to the understanding of the historical assembly of the Páramo
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9 567 flora. The results presented here are consistent with a role for contraction and
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11 568 expansion of Páramo islands during glacial cycles in the diversification of *Oreobolus*
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13 569 species. ILS appears to have played a role in the complex genetic patterns observed
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15 570 amongst these recently diverged *Oreobolus* species. ILS rather than recent
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17 571 hybridization is suggested by the lack of heterozygosity in ITS, but a role for
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19 572 historical hybridization cannot be discounted, particularly in several situations where
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21 573 the species are sympatric. Additional work incorporating more extensive sampling of
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23 574 individuals and assessing additional genetic data will be required to more accurately
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25 575 estimate patterns of historical demography of *Oreobolus*, which could bring further
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27 576 insight into the population dynamics of Páramo plants.
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1 578 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

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5 579 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
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10 580 DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

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15 581 MCGG and JER devised the project. LEN assisted with data analyses. MCGG
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17 582 drafted the text, with substantial contributions by JER, RTP and LEN. All authors
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20 583 contributed to final editing.
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767 TABLES

Table 1. Molecular diversity indices for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) for each species. N: number of individuals; H: number of haplotypes; hr: haplotype richness (ITS, rarefied to a minimum sample of 15; cpDNA, rarefied to a minimum sample of 9); h, haplotype diversity (\pm SD); π , nucleotide diversity (\pm SD). A, *O. obtusangulus* considered as one species; B, *O. obtusangulus* considered as two species.

| Species | N | H | hr | h | $\pi \times 100$ |
|-------------------------|----|----|------|-----------------|------------------|
| ITS | | | | | |
| <i>O. cleefii</i> | 15 | 5 | 5.00 | 0.70 ± 0.11 | 0.45 ± 0.30 |
| <i>O. ecuadorensis</i> | 24 | 4 | 3.12 | 0.31 ± 0.12 | 0.01 ± 0.10 |
| <i>O. goeppingeri</i> | 75 | 12 | 6.09 | 0.79 ± 0.03 | 1.15 ± 0.61 |
| <i>O. obtusangulus</i> | | | | | |
| NA | 23 | 8 | 6.12 | 0.68 ± 0.10 | 0.56 ± 0.35 |
| SA | 33 | 5 | 3.88 | 0.64 ± 0.06 | 2.25 ± 1.16 |
| Combined | 56 | 13 | 6.59 | 0.82 ± 0.03 | 2.76 ± 1.39 |
| <i>O. venezuelensis</i> | 27 | 7 | 5.02 | 0.63 ± 0.10 | 1.49 ± 0.80 |
| cpDNA | | | | | |
| <i>O. cleefii</i> | 9 | 4 | 4.00 | 0.78 ± 0.11 | 1.96 ± 1.07 |
| <i>O. ecuadorensis</i> | 29 | 5 | 3.54 | 0.72 ± 0.05 | 0.11 ± 0.07 |
| <i>O. goeppingeri</i> | 27 | 11 | 5.67 | 0.84 ± 0.06 | 2.36 ± 1.17 |
| <i>O. obtusangulus</i> | | | | | |
| NA | 20 | 10 | 6.35 | 0.91 ± 0.04 | 1.70 ± 0.86 |
| SA | 19 | 8 | 5.22 | 0.84 ± 0.06 | 2.20 ± 1.11 |
| Combined | 39 | 18 | 7.12 | 0.94 ± 0.02 | 3.05 ± 1.49 |
| <i>O. venezuelensis</i> | 14 | 8 | 6.30 | 0.91 ± 0.05 | 2.23 ± 1.15 |

Table 2. Pairwise F_{ST} values amongst species calculated from ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) considering *O. obtusangulus* as (a) one species and (b) as two species. Values for ITS are below the diagonal and cpDNA above. Bold numbers denote significance at the 5% level. cle: *O. cleefii*, ecu: *O. ecuadorensis*, goe: *O. goeppingeri*, obt: *O. obtusangulus* and ven: *O. venezuelensis*.

(a)

| | cle | ecu | goe | obt | ven | |
|-----|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----|
| cle | | 0.797 | 0.283 | 0.098 | 0.317 | cle |
| ecu | 0.770 | | 0.732 | 0.600 | 0.801 | ecu |
| goe | 0.284 | 0.307 | | 0.229 | 0.288 | goe |
| obt | 0.269 | 0.360 | 0.289 | | 0.256 | obt |
| ven | 0.314 | 0.328 | 0.175 | 0.291 | | ven |
| | cle | ecu | goe | obt | ven | |

(b)

| | cle | ecu | goe | obt (NA) | obt (SA) | ven | |
|----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| cle | | 0.797 | 0.283 | -0.020 | 0.487 | 0.317 | cle |
| ecu | 0.770 | | 0.732 | 0.780 | 0.819 | 0.801 | ecu |
| goe | 0.284 | 0.307 | | 0.363 | 0.430 | 0.288 | goe |
| obt (NA) | 0.157 | 0.710 | 0.294 | | 0.547 | 0.399 | obt (NA) |
| obt (SA) | 0.595 | 0.649 | 0.578 | 0.620 | | 0.478 | obt (SA) |
| ven | 0.314 | 0.328 | 0.175 | 0.339 | 0.551 | | ven |
| | cle | ecu | goe | obt (NA) | obt (SA) | ven | |

Table 3. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) results for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*).

| Group level | Source of variation | Degrees of freedom | | Sum of Squares | | Variance components | | Percentage of variation | | Fixation indices | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| | | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA |
| Species | Among species | 4 | 4 | 260 | 2033 | 1.69 | 21.67 | 30.46 | 47.65 | $F_{ST} = 0.31^{***}$ | $F_{ST} = 0.48^{***}$ |
| | Within species | 192 | 113 | 741 | 2689 | 3.86 | 23.80 | 69.54 | 52.35 | | |
| Clusters (all clusters) | Among clusters | 13 | 12 | 442 | 1925 | 2.30 | 15.54 | 42.95 | 36.84 | $F_{ST} = 0.43^{***}$ | $F_{ST} = 0.37^{***}$ |
| | Within clusters | 183 | 105 | 560 | 2798 | 3.06 | 26.65 | 57.05 | 63.16 | | |
| Clusters (northern Andes - NA) | Among clusters | 9 | 8 | 88 | 885 | 0.46 | 7.88 | 14.50 | 21.34 | $F_{ST} = 0.15^{**}$ | $F_{ST} = 0.21^{***}$ |
| | Within clusters | 154 | 90 | 416 | 2612 | 2.70 | 29.03 | 85.50 | 78.66 | | |
| Continental regions (NA vs SA) | Among regions | 1 | 1 | 309 | 746 | 5.38 | 19.89 | 59.49 | 35.54 | $F_{CT} = 0.60^{***}$ | $F_{CT} = 0.36^{***}$ |
| | Among clusters within regions | 12 | 11 | 133 | 1179 | 0.61 | 9.41 | 6.72 | 16.82 | $F_{SC} = 0.17^{**}$ | $F_{SC} = 0.26^{***}$ |
| | Within clusters | 183 | 105 | 560 | 2798 | 3.06 | 26.65 | 33.79 | 47.64 | $F_{ST} = 0.66^{***}$ | $F_{ST} = 0.52^{***}$ |
| SAMOVA groups | Among groups | 2 | 2 | 348 | 999 | 5.71 | 25.47 | 62.19 | 42.59 | $F_{CT} = 0.62^{***}$ | $F_{CT} = 0.43^{***}$ |
| | Among clusters within groups | 11 | 10 | 93 | 926 | 0.41 | 7.68 | 4.51 | 12.84 | $F_{SC} = 0.12^{*}$ | $F_{SC} = 0.22^{***}$ |
| | Within clusters | 183 | 105 | 560 | 2798 | 3.06 | 26.65 | 33.30 | 44.56 | $F_{ST} = 0.67^{***}$ | $F_{ST} = 0.55^{***}$ |

* significant at the 5% level; ** significant at the 1% level; *** significant at the 0.1% level

Table 4. Molecular diversity indices for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) for each SAMOVA grouping. N: number of individuals; H: number of haplotypes; hr: haplotype richness (ITS, rarefied to a minimum sample of 16; cpDNA, rarefied to a minimum sample of 9); h, haplotype diversity (\pm SD); π , nucleotide diversity (\pm SD).

| SAMOVA group | N | H | hr | h | $\pi \times 100$ |
|--------------|-----|----|------|-----------------|------------------|
| <i>ITS</i> | | | | | |
| I | 164 | 25 | 9.20 | 0.91 \pm 0.01 | 1.18 \pm 0.63 |
| II | 17 | 5 | 4.88 | 0.58 \pm 0.13 | 2.18 \pm 1.17 |
| III | 16 | 2 | 2.00 | 0.13 \pm 0.11 | 1.46 \pm 0.80 |
| <i>cpDNA</i> | | | | | |
| I | 100 | 33 | 7.43 | 0.95 \pm 0.01 | 3.03 \pm 1.46 |
| II | 9 | 4 | 4.00 | 0.58 \pm 0.18 | 1.90 \pm 1.04 |
| III | 9 | 4 | 4.00 | 0.75 \pm 0.11 | 0.06 \pm 0.05 |

1 769 FIGURES

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5 770 **Fig. 1** Geographical distribution of *Oreobolus* in South America based on herbarium
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8 771 records (coloured dots). Sampling localities (1 – 32) and their corresponding cluster
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10 772 (A – N) are also indicated. Arrows denote geographical features.

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13 773 **Fig. 2** Maximum clade credibility tree from the *BEAST 2 analysis based on ITS
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16 774 and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*). Numbers above the branches
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18 775 represent posterior probability values. Node bars show 95% HPD. NAC, northern
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21 776 Andean clade.

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24 777 **Fig. 3** NeighborNet network for the ITS haplotypes based on the uncorrected-p
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26 778 distances. Haplotypes are coloured according to species. Shared haplotypes are
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29 779 shown in white, with pie charts below (labelled with haplotype number) showing the
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31 780 frequency per species. NA: northern Andes, SA: southern Andes

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34 781 **Fig. 4** NeighborNet network for the cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*)
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37 782 haplotypes based on the uncorrected-p distances. Haplotypes are coloured according
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40 783 to species. Shared haplotypes are shown in white, with pie charts (labelled with
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42 784 haplotype number) indicating frequency per species shown below. NA: northern
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44 785 Andes, SA: southern Andes

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47 786 **Fig. 5** NeighborNet network showing genetic relatedness amongst clusters based on
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50 787 ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) F_{ST} pairwise values.
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Supplementary Table 1. Geographic coordinates and corresponding cluster of the sampling localities.

| Nº | SAMPLING LOCALITY | CLUSTER | LATITUDE | LONGITUDE |
|----|---------------------|---------|--------------|--------------|
| 1 | CHIRRIPO | A | 9.48411000 | -83.48861000 |
| 2 | COCUY | B | 6.41211667 | -72.33128333 |
| 3 | LA RUSIA | C | 5.93951667 | -73.07583333 |
| 4 | IGUAQUE | C | 5.68610000 | -73.44773333 |
| 5 | TOTA-BIJAGUAL | B | 5.48143333 | -72.85540000 |
| 6 | RABANAL | C | 5.40818333 | -73.54915000 |
| 7 | GUERRERO | C | 5.22618333 | -74.01788333 |
| 8 | CHINGAZA | D | 4.52848333 | -73.75866667 |
| 9 | SUMAPAZ | D | 4.28958333 | -74.20781667 |
| 10 | PURACE | E | 2.36088333 | -76.35038333 |
| 11 | AZUFRAL | F | 1.09543333 | -77.68711667 |
| 12 | VOLCAN CHILES | F | 0.80000000 | -77.93333333 |
| 13 | MIRADOR | F | 0.56666667 | -77.65000000 |
| 14 | COTOCACHI | F | 0.36666667 | -78.33333333 |
| 15 | COTOPAXI | G | -0.66666667 | -78.36666667 |
| 16 | LLANGANATI | G | -1.15000000 | -78.30000000 |
| 17 | ALAO-HUAMBOYA | G | -1.80000000 | -78.43333333 |
| 18 | PARAMO DE LAS CAJAS | H | -2.81666667 | -79.26666667 |
| 19 | CUENCA-LIMON | H | -3.00000000 | -78.66666667 |
| 20 | CUENCA-LOJA | H | -3.16666667 | -79.03333333 |
| 21 | PODOCARPUS | I | -4.40000000 | -79.10000000 |
| 22 | CAJAMARCA | J | -7.05000000 | -78.58333333 |
| 23 | HUASCARAN | J | -9.45000000 | -77.26666000 |
| 24 | VALDIVIA | K | -40.18333333 | -73.51666666 |
| 25 | FIORDO PEEL | L | -50.50000000 | -73.73333333 |
| 26 | MALVINAS | N | -51.64297000 | -59.89473000 |
| 27 | MORRO PHILIPPI | L | -51.73333333 | -71.50000000 |
| 28 | MAGALLANES | L | -53.45000000 | -71.76666700 |
| 29 | TIERRA DEL FUEGO | M | -54.76666666 | -67.40000000 |
| 30 | ISLA DE LOS ESTADOS | M | -54.80000000 | -64.31666666 |
| 31 | ISLA NAVARINO | M | -55.07553100 | -67.65539600 |
| 32 | CABO DE HORNS | M | -55.94407800 | -67.28092500 |

Supplementary Table 2. Sequence information

Supplementary Table 3. Number of individuals successfully sequenced per species per sampling locality for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*). Areas where species are not distributed are noted as n.d.

| CLUSTER/Sampling locality | <i>O. cleefii</i> | | <i>O. ecuadorensis</i> | | <i>O. goeppingeri</i> | | <i>O. obtusangulus</i> | | <i>O. venezuelensis</i> | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|-----------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA | ITS | cpDNA |
| CLUSTER A | | | | | | | | | | |
| (1) Chirripo | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | - | n.d. | n.d. | - | - |
| CLUSTER B | | | | | | | | | | |
| (2) Cocuy | 5 | 4 | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 4 | - | - | - | - |
| (5) Tota-Bijagual | 2 | 1 | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER C | | | | | | | | | | |
| (4) Iguaque | - | - | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| (3) La Rusia | 2 | 2 | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | - | - | - | 2 | 1 |
| (6) Rabanal | - | - | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| (7) Guerrero | 1 | - | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | - | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER D | | | | | | | | | | |
| (8) Chingaza | 1 | - | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 1 | - | - | 2 | 1 |
| (9) Sumapaz | - | - | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 2 | 1 | - | 4 | 2 |
| CLUSTER E | | | | | | | | | | |
| (10) Purace | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 3 | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER F | | | | | | | | | | |
| (11) Azufral | 4 | 2 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| (12) Volcan Chiles | - | - | 1 | 1 | 5 | - | 5 | 4 | - | - |
| (13) Mirador | - | - | - | - | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| (14) Cotocachi | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER G | | | | | | | | | | |
| (15) Cotopaxi | n.d. | n.d. | 9 | 13 | 2 | - | 2 | 2 | - | 1 |
| (16) Llanganati | n.d. | n.d. | - | 1 | 2 | - | 2 | 1 | - | - |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|----|----|------|------|
| (17) Alao-Huamboya | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 2 | 3 | - | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER H | | | | | | | | | | |
| (18) Paramo De Las Cajas | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 | - | - |
| (19) Cuenca-Limon | n.d. | n.d. | - | - | 2 | - | 3 | 3 | - | - |
| (20) Cuenca-Loja | n.d. | n.d. | 4 | 4 | 11 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| CLUSTER I | | | | | | | | | | |
| (21) Podocarpus | n.d. | n.d. | - | - | 18 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 4 |
| CLUSTER J | | | | | | | | | | |
| (22) Cajamarca | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | 1 | 3 | - | 1 | 1 | - | - |
| (23) Huascan | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CLUSTER K | | | | | | | | | | |
| (24) Valdivia | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | 1 | n.d. | n.d. |
| CLUSTER L | | | | | | | | | | |
| (25) Fiordo Peel | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | - | n.d. | n.d. |
| (27) Morro Philippi | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | 1 | n.d. | n.d. |
| (28) Magallanes | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 11 | 7 | n.d. | n.d. |
| CLUSTER M | | | | | | | | | | |
| (29) Tierra Del Fuego | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 10 | 5 | n.d. | n.d. |
| (30) Isla De Los Estados | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 2 | 1 | n.d. | n.d. |
| (31) Isla Navarino | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | - | n.d. | n.d. |
| (32) Cabo De Hornos | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 3 | 3 | n.d. | n.d. |
| CLUSTER N | | | | | | | | | | |
| (26) Malvinas | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1 | 1 | n.d. | n.d. |
| TOTAL | 15 | 9 | 24 | 29 | 75 | 27 | 56 | 39 | 27 | 14 |

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| | Hn24 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn25 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn26 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn27 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn28 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn29 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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| | Hn30 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
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Supplementary Table 5. Frequency of occurrence of cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) haplotypes (Hc) across clusters and species. Clusters (B – N) as described in Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 1. cle: *O. cleefii*, ecu: *O. ecuadorensis*, goe: *O. goeppingeri*, obt: *O. obtusangulus* and ven: *O. venezuelensis*.

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| Hc10 | cle | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | | . | . | . | . |
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| Hc23 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . | . | . | . |
| Hc24 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc25 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc26 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . | . | . | . |
| Hc27 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | 2 | 2 | . | . |
| Hc28 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc29 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc30 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc31 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc32 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 2 | . | . | . | . |
| Hc33 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc34 | cle ecu goe obt ven | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . | . | . | . |

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|------|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hc35 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc36 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc37 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | 1 | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc38 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | 2 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc39 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 3 | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Hc40 | <i>cle</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ecu</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>goe</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>obt</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| | <i>ven</i> | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | 1 | . | . | . | . | . | . |

Supplementary Table 6. Spatial analysis of molecular variance (SAMOVA) results for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) showing the variance amongst groups (F_{CT} values) for pre-defined K number of groups.

| | K | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| F_{CT} ITS | 0.595 | 0.622 | 0.608 | 0.608 | 0.603 | 0.581 | 0.505 | 0.507 | 0.468 | 0.481 | 0.504 | 0.639 |
| F_{CT} cpDNA | 0.417 | 0.426 | 0.417 | 0.414 | 0.412 | 0.406 | 0.405 | 0.410 | 0.441 | 0.502 | 0.675 | - |

Supplementary Table 7. Pairwise F_{ST} values amongst clusters calculated from ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*). Results for ITS are shown below the diagonal and cpDNA above. Bold numbers indicate significance at the 5% level.

| | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | |
|---|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---|--------------|--------------|---|---|
| A | | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | A |
| B | - | | 0.134 | 0.112 | 0.136 | 0.001 | 0.504 | 0.101 | 0.211 | 0.586 | - | 0.462 | 0.713 | - | B |
| C | - | 0.092 | | 0.028 | 0.050 | 0.038 | 0.206 | -0.003 | 0.157 | 0.200 | - | 0.417 | 0.690 | - | C |
| D | - | 0.141 | 0.050 | | 0.023 | 0.166 | 0.530 | 0.220 | 0.264 | 0.597 | - | 0.470 | 0.740 | - | D |
| E | - | 0.290 | -0.073 | 0.200 | | 0.048 | 0.511 | 0.113 | 0.076 | 0.712 | - | 0.414 | 0.874 | - | E |
| F | - | 0.147 | 0.106 | 0.201 | 0.101 | | 0.342 | 0.000 | 0.109 | 0.402 | - | 0.408 | 0.621 | - | F |
| G | - | 0.267 | 0.061 | 0.249 | 0.206 | 0.089 | | 0.188 | 0.452 | -0.080 | - | 0.646 | 0.794 | - | G |
| H | - | 0.258 | 0.120 | 0.258 | 0.028 | 0.051 | 0.052 | | 0.095 | 0.207 | - | 0.406 | 0.581 | - | H |
| I | - | 0.232 | 0.055 | 0.202 | -0.046 | 0.141 | 0.127 | 0.087 | | 0.532 | - | 0.444 | 0.724 | - | I |
| J | - | 0.498 | 0.065 | 0.484 | 0.485 | 0.406 | 0.232 | 0.276 | 0.122 | | - | 0.698 | 0.989 | - | J |
| K | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | | - | - | - | K |
| L | - | 0.629 | 0.474 | 0.635 | 0.482 | 0.659 | 0.660 | 0.661 | 0.537 | 0.595 | - | | 0.657 | - | L |
| M | - | 0.702 | 0.531 | 0.708 | 0.601 | 0.715 | 0.718 | 0.704 | 0.563 | 0.688 | - | 0.296 | | - | M |
| N | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | | N |
| | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | |

Supplementary Table 8. Molecular diversity indices for ITS and cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) for each cluster. Clusters (A – N) as described in Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 1. Metrics were not applicable (n.a.) for clusters with less than three individuals. N, number of individuals; h, haplotype diversity (\pm SD); π , nucleotide diversity (\pm SD).

| | | ITS | | | | cpDNA | | | |
|---|-----|--------------|----|-----------------|------------------|--------------|----|-----------------|------------------|
| | | SAMOVA group | N | h | $\pi \times 100$ | SAMOVA group | N | h | $\pi \times 100$ |
| A | I | | 2 | n.a. | n.a. | - | - | - | - |
| B | I | | 13 | 0.69 \pm 0.12 | 0.76 \pm 0.46 | I | 10 | 0.82 \pm 0.10 | 2.34 \pm 1.25 |
| C | I | | 10 | 0.82 \pm 0.10 | 2.95 \pm 1.63 | I | 5 | 0.90 \pm 0.16 | 3.95 \pm 2.41 |
| D | I | | 14 | 0.85 \pm 0.07 | 0.63 \pm 0.39 | I | 6 | 0.73 \pm 0.16 | 2.78 \pm 1.62 |
| E | I | | 3 | 0.67 \pm 0.31 | 0.72 \pm 0.63 | I | 3 | 1.00 \pm 0.27 | 2.15 \pm 1.62 |
| F | I | | 24 | 0.86 \pm 0.04 | 0.67 \pm 0.40 | I | 17 | 0.93 \pm 0.04 | 2.68 \pm 1.36 |
| G | I | | 23 | 0.76 \pm 0.08 | 0.66 \pm 0.40 | I | 20 | 0.77 \pm 0.08 | 1.69 \pm 0.86 |
| H | I | | 34 | 0.83 \pm 0.03 | 0.84 \pm 0.48 | I | 25 | 0.92 \pm 0.03 | 3.10 \pm 1.55 |
| I | I | | 34 | 0.67 \pm 0.05 | 1.88 \pm 0.98 | I | 10 | 0.91 \pm 0.08 | 2.20 \pm 1.18 |
| J | I | | 7 | 0.91 \pm 0.10 | 0.56 \pm 0.39 | I | 3 | 0.67 \pm 0.31 | 0.09 \pm 0.08 |
| K | II | | 1 | n.a. | n.a. | I | 1 | n.a. | n.a. |
| L | II | | 15 | 0.55 \pm 0.14 | 2.36 \pm 1.27 | II | 8 | 0.64 \pm 0.18 | 2.13 \pm 1.18 |
| M | III | | 16 | 0.13 \pm 0.11 | 1.46 \pm 0.80 | III | 9 | 0.75 \pm 0.11 | 0.06 \pm 0.05 |
| N | II | | 1 | n.a. | n.a. | II | 1 | n.a. | n.a. |

Supplementary Fig. 1 MST and distribution of ITS haplotypes. Numbers refer to haplotypes listed in Supplementary Table 5. Haplotypes are coloured according to species. Shared haplotypes are shown in white. Detail of species sharing haplotypes is given in Fig. 3. Hypothetical haplotypes are represented by filled black circles. Letters on the map refer to clusters as described in Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 3. Pie charts are proportional to sample size for each cluster ($N = 1 - 34$). Numbers next to each segment refer to haplotype number. NA: northern Andes, SA: southern Andes

Supplementary Fig. 2 MST and distribution of cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and *rpl32-trnL*) haplotypes. Numbers refer to haplotypes listed in Supplementary Table 6. Haplotypes are coloured according to species. Shared haplotypes are shown in white. Detail of species sharing haplotypes is given in Fig. 5. Hypothetical haplotypes are represented by filled black circles, numbers within indicate their number when more than one. Letters on the map refer to clusters as described in Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 3. Pie charts are proportional to sample size for each cluster ($N = 1 - 25$). Numbers next to each segment refer to haplotype number. NA: northern Andes, SA: southern Andes

Supplementary Fig. 3 NeighborNet network showing genetic relatedness amongst the South American species of *Oreobolus* based on ITS F_{ST} pairwise values considering (a) *O. obtusangulus* as one species (b) *O. obtusangulus* as two species

Supplementary Fig. 4 NeighborNet network showing genetic relatedness amongst the South American species of *Oreobolus* based on cpDNA (*trnL-F*, *trnH-psbA* and

817 *rpl32-trnL*) F_{ST} pairwise values considering (a) *O. obtusangulus* as one species (b)

818 *O. obtusangulus* as two species

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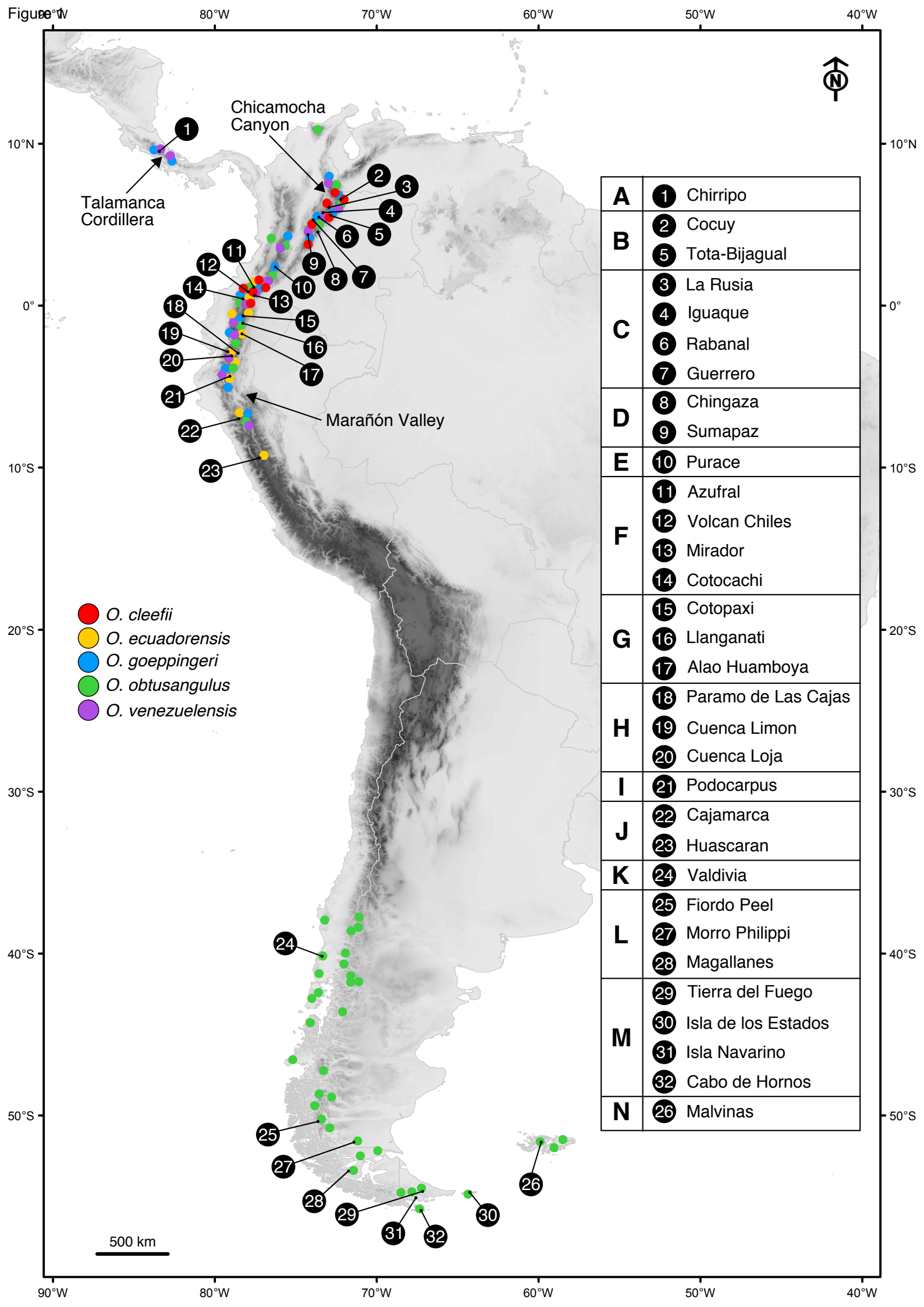


Figure 2

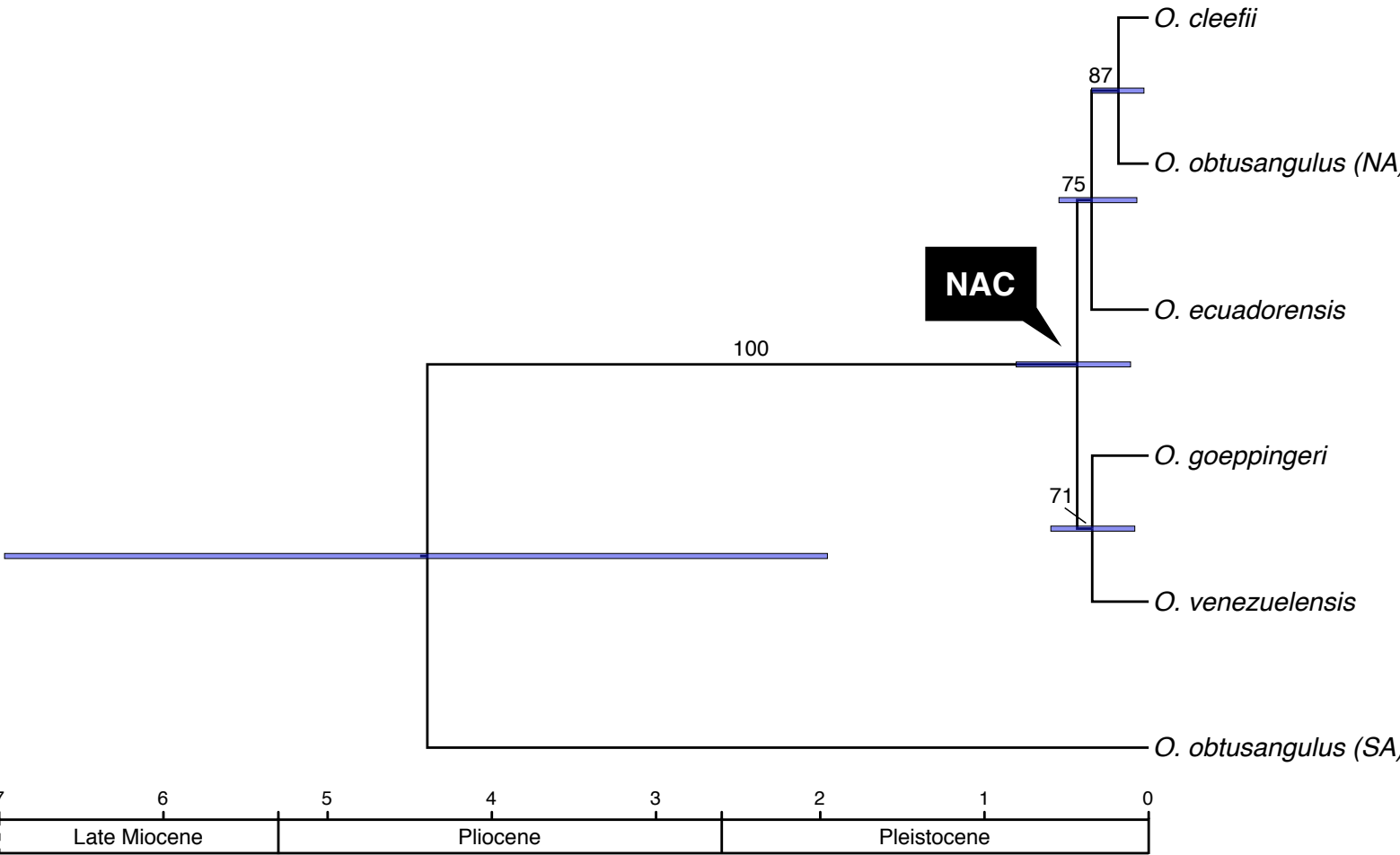
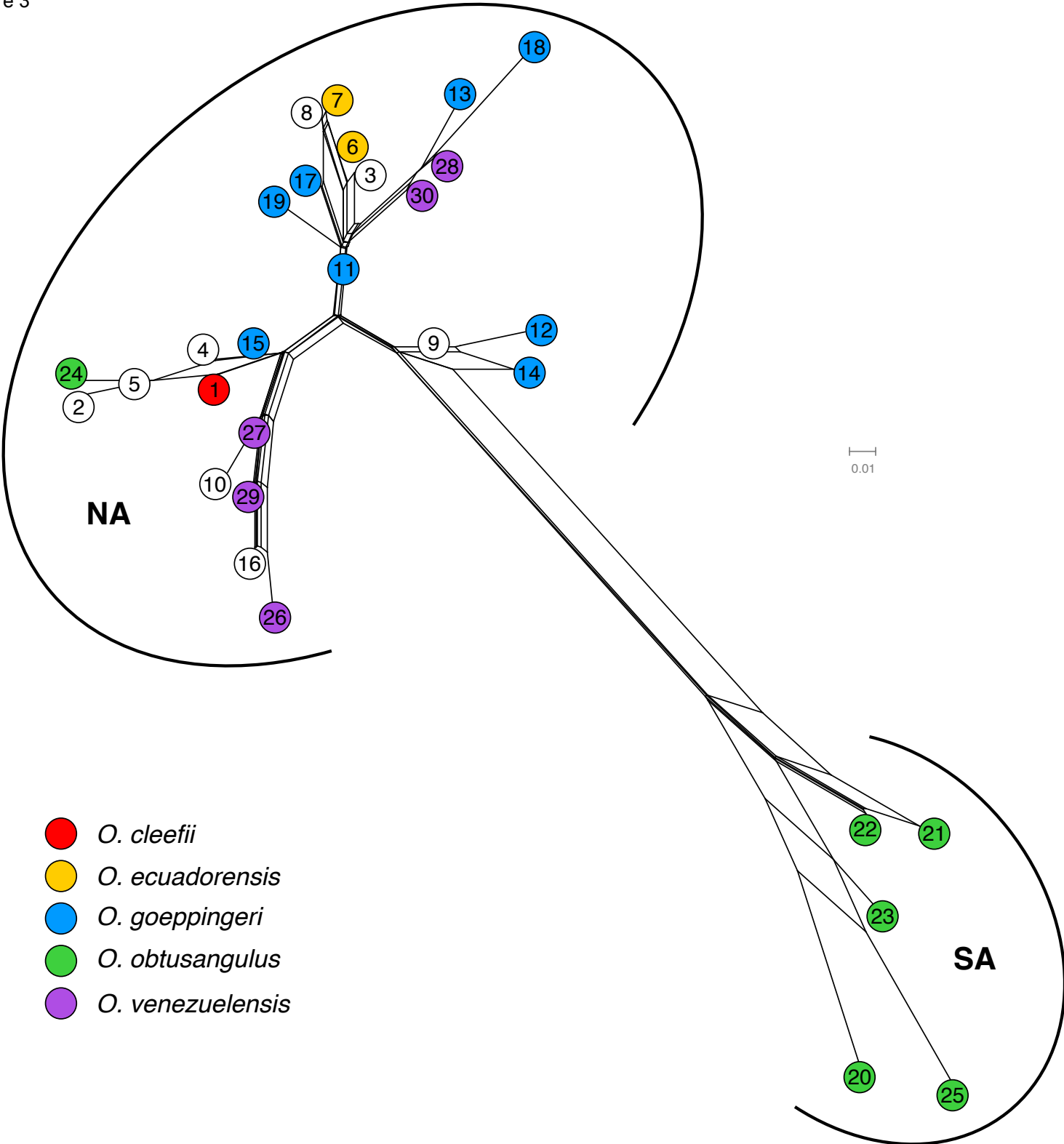


Figure 3



- *O. cleefii*
- *O. ecuadorensis*
- *O. goeppingeri*
- *O. obtusangulus*
- *O. venezuelensis*

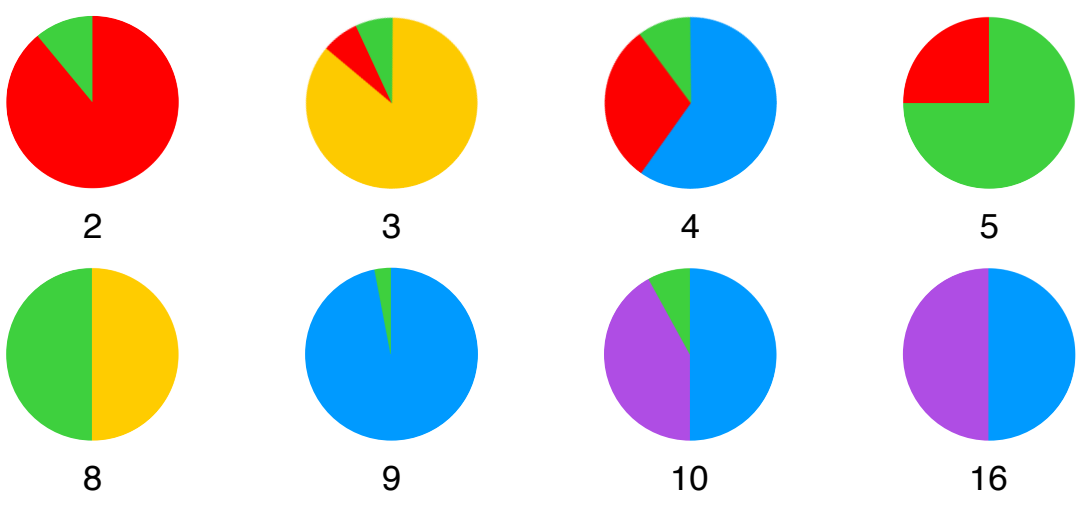
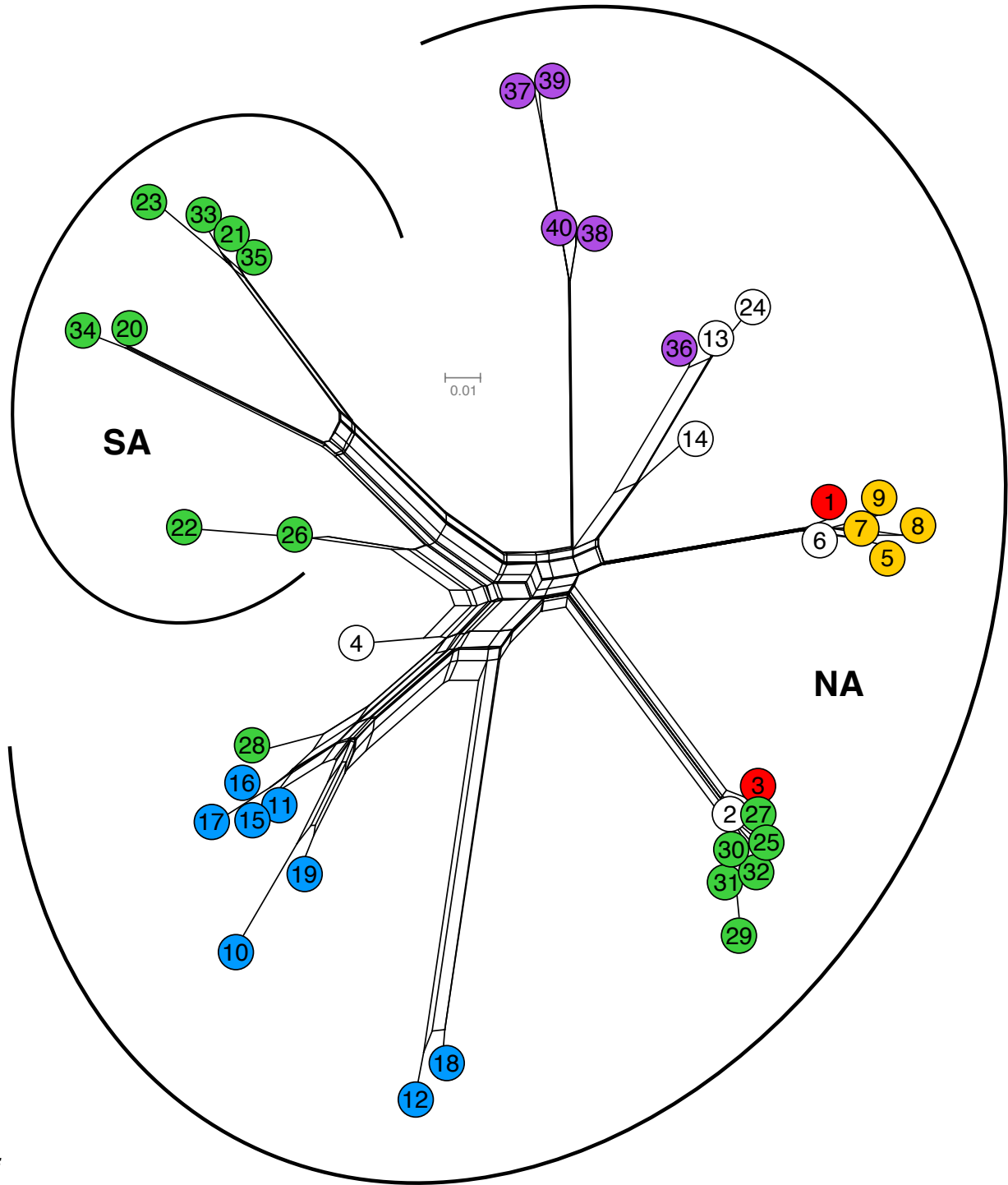


Figure 4



- *O. cleefii*
- *O. ecuadorensis*
- *O. goeppingeri*
- *O. obtusangulus*
- *O. venezuelensis*

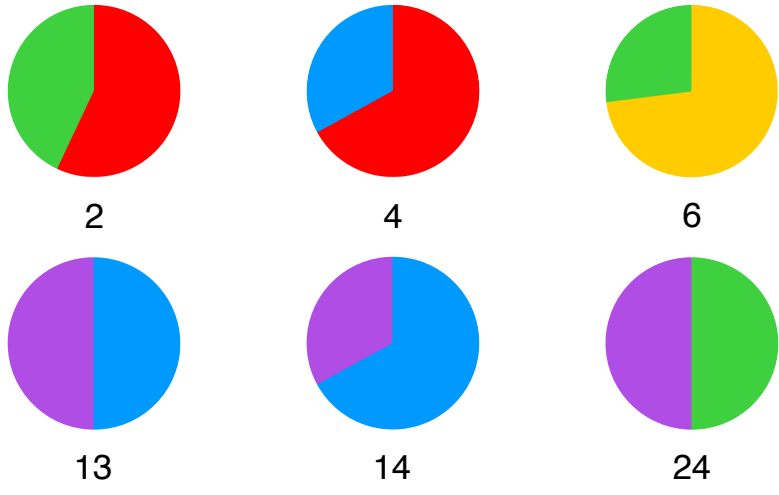
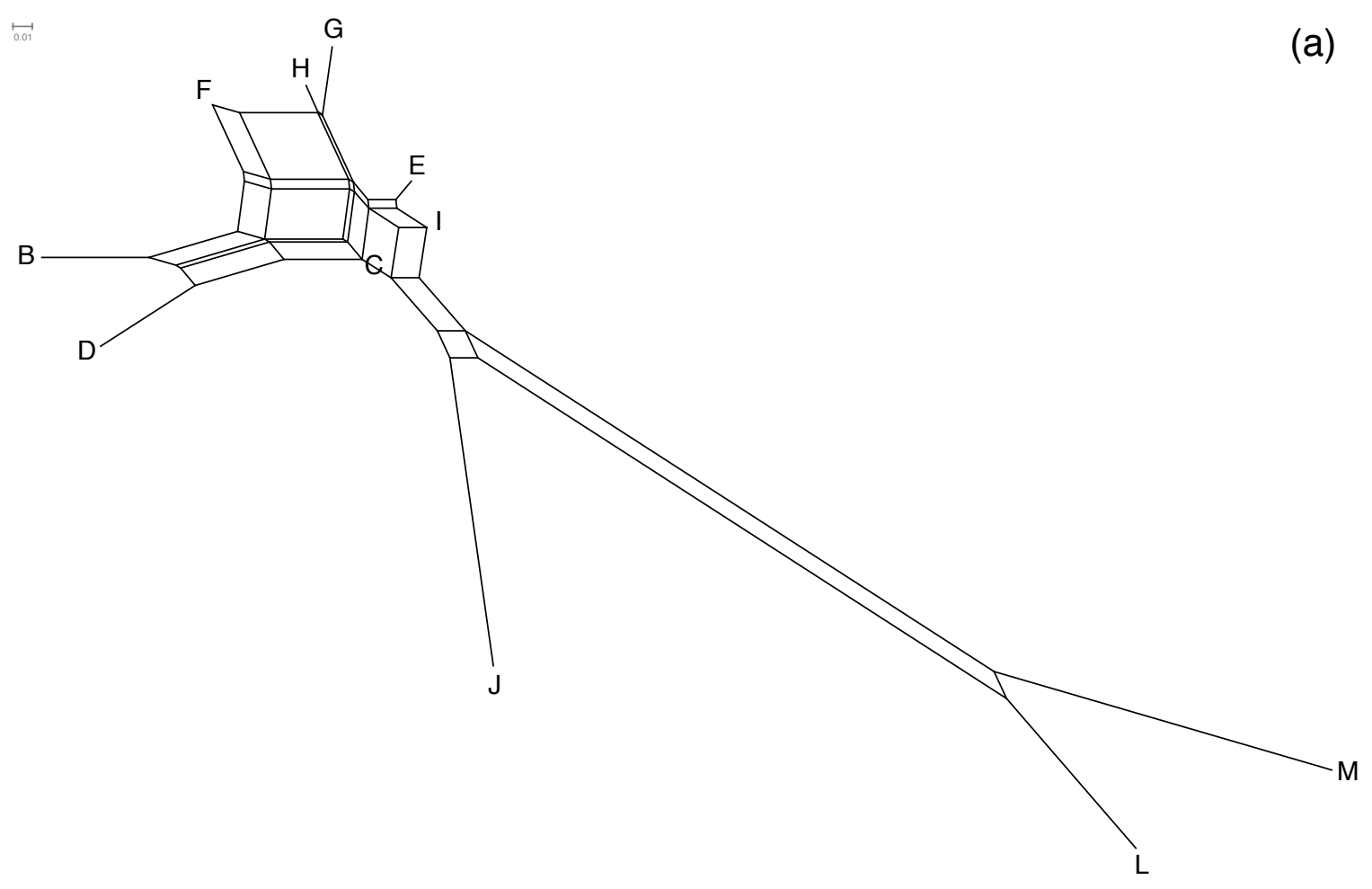


Figure 5

0.01

(a)



0.01

(b)

